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ABSTRACT

This periodical is intended for exchanging information about leadership achievements, program innovations, research findings, and organizational developments having special interest to and bearing upon minority group members and women in education. This issue contains six articles, "State Education Agencies and the Delivery of Quality Educational Services to Black Students" by John F. Heflin; "Vocational Education: Implications for Educational Administrators" by N. Allan Sheppard; "Black Students in Higher Education" by Benjamin R. McClain; "Socialization: Chicano Administrators in Higher Education" by Baltazar A. Acevedo, Jr.; "Affirmative Action Officers: A Preliminary Study" by Charlotte Robinson; and "The Liberated Man," a book review, by Susan B. Phibbs. (Author/JM)

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Focus on Minorities and Women in Educational Administration

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STATEMENT OF PURPOSE

Emergent Leadership is to serve as a current publication for the purpose of exchanging information and ideas about leadership achievements, program innovations, research findings, organizational developments and other matters of concern to all educators but having special interest to and bearing upon minority group members and women in education. The goal of sharing this information is to enhance the leadership roles of minorities and women in education, promote planned change benefitting the traditionally excluded groups, and to stimulate individuals to form other communication channels and working networks.

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From The Editor

In keeping with the purpose of EMERGENT LEADERSHIP -- to provide knowledge by women and minorities about aspects that affect them in education -- this academic year the editors have decided to experiment with a thematic approach. It is believed that by utilizing a theme approach crucial issues will be intensively covered as well as providing a means for perspectives of women and minorities to gain exposure. At the same time, the editors do not wish to discourage or exclude other educators from contributing their thoughts or sharing their research findings on some particular problem that may be of equal importance as the themes adopted. Therefore, while a theme has been established for the following two issues, the entire copy of EMERGENT LEADERSHIP will not be on the theme, i.e., there will be space for non-theme submissions.

The theme for the Spring issue (Vol. III, no. 2) will be "Reaffirming Affirmative Action After Bakke." We are of the opinion that affirmative action, as a concept implemented into practice, affects all minorities and women in varying degrees. The split decision, the various statements by the Supreme Court judges and quick analysis by the news media of the Bakke case will allow for numerous interpretations to come forth from educational leaders. Undoubtedly, there will be as many interpretations as there are policy drafters (trustees/regents) and program implementers (administrators). To help those of us who will be impacted and those who will be responsible for beginning, revising or maintaining an affirmative action program, we believe a thorough discussion of affirmative action after Bakke will be timely and valuable.

The Summer issue (Vol. III, no. 3) will revolve around the theme of "Moving Institutions Toward Equity." While affirmative action is one strategy of bringing equity to an institution (i.e., by changing the membership of the organization to include the traditionally excluded), certainly there are other strategies which can be employed to establish diversity, secure fairness, pursue excellence and rid institutions of dual standards, discriminatory practices and favorism for a particular few. Again, as editors, we believe this theme to be substantially important that an extentive coverage should provide needed assistance to many.

Since we view EMERGENT LEADERSHIP as a means to communicate on crucial issues, we encourage you to dialogue with the editors and the authors by suggesting ways to improve the journal, by critiquing the works published or by submitting a manuscript of your own. As is the case with most community efforts, EMERGENT LEADERSHIP will be as good and useful a means of networking as you the reader contribute to its development. /EL/

VALVERDE
Austin, Texas

State Education Agencies And The Delivery Of Quality Educational Services To Black Students

John F. Heflin

Over the years, educators and social scientists have conducted numerous pedagogical and other research studies designed to locate key points of leverage to improve the quality of education available to students. We have witnessed an increase in the number of conferences and workshops which culminate with the same charge to conferees: Re-conceptualize problem statements, assumptions, models, methodologies, conclusions and educational policy alternatives (1). But little attention is directed toward the dynamics of intergovernmental relations and educational governance. Consequently, many educators overlook State Education Agencies (SEAs) as a critical linkage in the American education system.

This paper focuses on SEAs and their role within the American educational structure; the author suggests a rationale for researching and lobbying the 50 SEAs. The paper proceeds with an overview of SEAs, then shifts to their inter and intragovernmental dynamics. It concludes by suggesting several policy issues which are crucial for the delivery of quality educational services to Black students.

SEA's in the Intergovernmental System

The education of American youth takes place within a three-way governmental partnership: Federal, State, and Local. Education is a Federal concern, a State responsibility and a Local operation. Although there is belief in the American tradition of local control, the two other levels of government play significant roles in the overall quality of services available at the local level. A major reason for the key role of the SEA is grounded in the Tenth Amendment of the U.S. Constitution:

> The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the states respectively, or to the people.(2)

This Constitutional provision has far reaching significance for state governance; where the U.S. Constitution is silent, such powers are the responsibility of state governments -- including education. Using this constitutional authority as a basis, state legislatures exercise plenary control over the creation and maintenance of public schools; and state legislatures have established SEA's whose primary functions are service, regulation, operational and leadership (3).

Clearly, SEA's are in both a statutory and strategic position to initiate education reform; SEA's establish minimum standards, regulate programs and provide professional leadership to school districts. Also SEA's are in the middle of the intergovernmental system. They engage in activities such as the refinement of federal regulations for federal categorical aid (Title I, 1965 ESEA for example) to local school districts.

A recent study suggested that SEA's will continue to play a key role in the educational intergovernmental system. Some observers suggest that states are gaining more power relative to the other levels of educational governance. Wirt did a study of power within the intergovernmental system based upon a content analysis of 36 areas of school policy using data from statutes, Constitutions, and court opinions for each state and for each policy (4). A primary objective of this study was to measure the degree and variety of state versus local control in educational policy matters. A "Scale of School Control" for seven categories of state and local interaction was developed; the categories are (5):

0. Absence of State Authority
1. Permissive Local Autonomy
2. Required Local Autonomy
3. Extensive Local Option Under State Mandated Requirements
4. Limited Local Option Under State Mandated Requirements
5. No Local Option Under State Mandated Requirements
6. Total State Assumption

Wirt further developed an index of state versus local control by simply summing and averaging the number of legal references for each of the categories within the "Scale of School Control." This procedure is analagous to computing a grade-point average; by utilizing this procedure, a total score for each of the policy areas can be computed. This strategy also provides a means by which each of the 50 states may be assessed for the degree of state centralization versus local autonomy. A high score indicates a high degree of state control. Conversely, a low score indicates high local control. For example, Hawaii has the highest degree of state control (6.00) due primarily to this state's total assumption of school financing. At the other end of the scale is the state of Wyoming which has the lowest degree of state control (1.86) due primarily to the rural characteristics of its schools.

But state control profiles are not the primary concern of this paper; however, the Wirt study provides a means for analyzing a wide range of control issues. A major conclusion of Wirt's study was that all SEA's exercise some degree of control over local educational agencies (LEA's). Below are several policy issues and how they were categorized.

Areas of Highest State Control. Personnel, compulsory attendance, financial record requirements and LEA accreditation/standardization.

Areas of High State Control. Teacher employment, school calendar, records and revenue controls. Also included are instructional content in special education, curriculum textbooks, adult education, graduation requirements and physical plant controls (safety, transportation, and construction).

Areas of Moderate State Control. Organizational structure, educational objectives, salary requirements, grading standards and specification of educational services to be offered.

Bimodal Control. LEA spending and accounting for money, new programs, special out-of-class enrichment and evaluation of school system products and processes.

High Local Control. Student promotion requirements and bond usage; 35 states are silent on the issues of student promotion and 43 states have no constraints or requirements with respect to bonds.

In short, this "Scale of School Control" provides a qualitative and quantitative strategy whereby state versus local control of educational policy may be measured. State Constitutions and statutes provide rich data sources for studying several major reforms which have occurred in American educational policy. Correspondingly, state legislatures and state education agencies are key points of leverage for education reformers; these points of leverage may also be utilized to improve the quality of education. But let us turn to the inter and intra organizational dynamics of SEA's.

SEA's: Intra and Intergovernmental Dynamics

Like most formal organizations, SEAs have organization and governance structures. Within SEAs, these structures have definite hierarchical characteristics and function at three general levels: 1) Institutional Level (Board), 2) Administrative Level (management and mid-management) and 3) Technical (SEA technical assistance to local school districts). Board Level activities fall into the general categories of 1) providing direction to state departments of education (SEAs); providing information to the state legislature; and 3) on-going study of educational programs and services. Most importantly the Board has policy-making powers. At the Administrative Level, the chief state school officer's duties generally include serving as executive officer of the State board of education and administrative head of the SEA. Technical Level activities focus on curriculum and program development, regulations and consultant services. It is at this level where the organizational members interact with local school district officials and professionals. Consequently, SEA's interface with the federal government and local school districts.

Within this Federal-State-Local framework, tension often occurs at each linkage when there is a shift in power. Since Brown vs Board of education, and the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Ele-

mentary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (Title I, especially), Federal-State-Local linkages have become aggravated. And it is interesting to note that court decisions and the federal statutes have significant implications for the improvement of educational services (6). To further illustrate the point of intergovernmental tensions, let us briefly introduce a case form the Oregon Department of Education. Whenever, the issue of improvement of minority and urban education is discussed, the concept of equal educational opportunity is often discussed synonymously. In 1975, Oregon enacted a far-reaching anti-discrimination statute. This statute, perhaps the most comprehensive piece of anti-discrimination in Oregon legislative history, House Bill 2131, contains the following provisions:

> Prohibits discrimination in public educational programs on basis of age, handicap, national origin, race, marital status, religion or sex. Requires both State Board of Education and State Board of Higher Education to adopt prescribed rules and the education departments to make reports to the 59th Legislative Assebmly on compliance. (7)

This legislation sent shock waves throughout the Oregon SEA because many state and local education officials were concerned about the provisions for definite sanctions: non-complying schools and institutions could possibly lose their state school funding.

Following a review of this statute by the Oregon Board of Education, the chief state school officer was directed to take the necessary action to implement this legislation. An Oregon Administrative Rule (OAR) was drafted; the language of the rule was ultimately incorporated into the Oregon Minimum Standards for School accreditation. Although this Minimum Standard captures the legislative intent of HB 2131, it did not contain specific criteria which Oregon Department of Education accreditation teams could apply to school systems for evaluation of equal educational opportunity structures and processes. Unless more specific criteria were developed, this legislation ran the risk of becoming nothing more than a "symbolic" output from the Oregon legislature.

When several Oregon Department of Education administrators and specialists were questioned about equal opportunity strategies and measures to be applied during school district standardization visits, the

general reply was, "we will ask school district officials if they have an affirmative action plan." However, many of the persons responsible for standardization visits had refused to attend previously sponsored workshops on concepts and consequences of affirmative action programs. Consequently, these staffers would not be competent to evaluate school district affirmative action plans for comprehensiveness and effectiveness. Personnel in the Oregon Department of Education Standardization Division were further queried about their strategy for assessing equality in the delivery of educational services. Again, there were no concrete answers because no strategies had been formulated. Apparently these Oregon Department of Education officials did not know where to begin in developing indicators for non-discrimination compliance.

This brief sketch of Oregon House Bill 2131 (Oregon Administrative Rule 481-22-045 and Oregon Minimum Standard 581-22-242) and the intra and inter organizational dynamics of their implementation is but one example of how all across the country great legislative expectations are being dashed because of the SEA bureaucratic process. Even the most conservative interpretation of HB 2131 would require that Oregon Department of Education officials inspect and standardize school districts requirements across a wide range of non-discriminatory, equal education and equal employment areas. Clearly, these SEA activities have potential for the improvement of education for minorities in Oregon's 330 school districts (8).

Super-imposing the Wirt "Scale of School Control" over the above case study, one might conclude that equal educational opportunity regulations have the potential of being a very centralized SEA activity, because many SEA officials and professionals have begun to quantify the equal education concept as a result of state legislation.

Other policy issues which impact on minority students and professionals must be continually assessed and lobbied at the state level (SEAs included). We need studies which document the impact of state school finance reform alternatives on districts with substantial minority populations. These data will be essential as various states develop criteria to meet Serrano and Rodriques type requirements and as states begin to adjust state school finance formulas in the wake of the property tax revolt now sweeping the country. It is important that state

education policies be constantly scrutinized for measures to bring about improvements in the quality of educational services to students.

Key Policy Issues and SEA Processes

In addition to school finance policy, several major policy issues which are processed at the state level have great significance for Black urban students. However, discussions of "the key educational issues" which impact on the Black community generates heated controversy because most education professionals and lay persons have a list. And they will gladly share the lists at the "drop of a hat." Consequently, there are risks in suggesting a list of "the key policy issues" which have special significance for Black students. But here are some observations.

The most monumental educational policy issue since the 1960's was the Brown vs. Board of Education desegregation decision which reversed the national policy of separate but equal in educational facilities. So desegregation is the number one policy issue. Remedial or compensatory education strategies have been directed at large populations of Black clients; early childhood intervention programs such as Head Start and Follow Through are examples of these types of programs. Therefore compensatory education is the second major education policy issue. Occupying the third position is the redesign of educational governance structures through decentralization and community control. Advocates of this educational strategy suggest that it will provide for a redistribution of power and decision-making within the education subsystem. As more and more parents and residents of urban areas realized the prospects of securing quality education for their children were dim, they began to shift their tactics to changing governance and control structures. In this way community residents would have greater control over personnel, curriculum and educational objectives. The fourth major policy issue is the competency-based education movement. Many parents and lay people jumped on the competency bandwagon before it was adequately conceptualized and valid performance indicators were developed. Nonetheless, over 30 states have endorsed this new movement and are implementing programs. But the results of recent state-sponsored competency tests in Florida revealed that a large percentage of Black students do not meet the competency criteria. The NAACP is currently bringing a suit against a Florida school district to get a moratorium on this movement. Are the competency tests discriminatory? Or is it that the school system is failing

to educate large numbers of Black children? These policy questions need to be probed.

These are suggested key educational policy issues, but there are other issues which could be included here. Many additional issues are spin-offs of the key education policy issues cited above. For example, the issue of the differential suspension and explusion rates for Black students can be traced to racist attitudes of administrators and teachers at newly desegregated schools -- a desegregation issue.

In summary, many of these policy issues cited above overlap and make them all the more important for closer scrutiny. For example, the issues of school desegregation and compensatory education overlap. During recent years some lower courts have required compensatory programs as part of the remedy in school desegregation cases. The rationale being that compensatory education components facilitate the implementation of equal educational opportunity programming (9).

Apparently the U.S. Supreme Court is beginning to approve such remedies; in June, 1977, in Michigan, the U.S. Supreme Court approved a lower court's compensatory education provision. Relief in this case also required new programs in reading, in-service teacher training, non-discriminatory testing and career guidance (10). Since the state of Michigan was shown to be a party in the violation, the Michigan SEA was ordered to share the costs of the compensatory program with local officials. Consequently, this decision will generate a new set of activities at the state level. These dynamics are offered as further support for the assertion that the study of state level policy making and its relationship to Blacks is crucial to educational reform.

Conclusion

The major thesis of this paper is that education reformers who wish to improve the quality of educational services available to Black clients should focus on State Education Agencies (SEAs). SEAs are in statutory and strategic positions within the American intergovernmental relations system.

Recent research shows that qualitative and quantative strategies are being developed to measure the degree of state versus local control

in many key educational policy issues. SEA equal educational opportunity policies have not been consistently researched and as a consequence remain largely unexplored.

It is suggested that education reformers scrutinize SEA behaviors as policies are formulated which focus on school finance, school desegregation/integration, compensatory education, administrative decentralization and community control, and competency-based education/graduation requirements. These issues are especially critical to contemporary efforts to improve the quality of educational services for Black clients.

/EL/

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3. For a discussion of education intergovernmental relations see: Michael Kirst (ed.) State, School and Politics: Research Directions (Lexington-Heath, 1972) and Frederick Wirt and Michael Kirst, The Political Web of American Schools (Little, Borwn, 1972).

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10. Milliken v. Bradley, 433 U.S. 267 (1977); see also Arthur v. Nyquist, Civil Action No. 76-7292, (2nd Cir., March 8, 1978) and Evans v. Buchanan, 555 F. 2d 373 (3rd Cir., 1977); 435 F. Supp. 832 (D. Del, 1977); 477 F. Supp. 982 (D. Del. 1978).

Vocational Education:

Implications For Ed. Administrators

N. Alan Sheppard

From an occupational viewpoint, America's 200 years have carried its people from farm to factory to office or from an agrarian to an industrail to a service economy. In reality, this is an over simplification of our complex historical occupational and economic progress to date.(10) The simple farm - factory - office model does not show the tortuous route followed by certain groups who were forgotten, ignored, overlooked, displaced, misplaced, and subsequently deprived, disadvantaged, handicapped, stigmatized and sterotyped during the 200 year history. Nor does the model reflect the fact that those Americans who were already here, American Indians or Native Americans, are probably the single most depressed ethnic group in America, suffering more than Blacks or Hispanics from poverty and unemployment. The problem has been chronic and no viable way has been found to make measurable progress. It is complicated by their status on reservations, by difficulties resulting from working with or through tribal councils, and by the need to find acceptable ways to bridge severe cultural differences. Neither does the model reveal how progress along the farm - factory - office route varied in the different regions of America, how in one region the speed of travel and the intensity and magnitude of efforts that were applied in getting from one stage to the other varied widely from those in another region.

But the model does reveal that the three stages are tied together and that, although the pace of progress from one to the other differed regionally, it has been one process. This "oneness" of the model should

tell us at least two things: (a) That we should be genuinely concerned about providing vocational education opportunities to those persons who now, or later, find themselves categorized into a special group;and (b) that although we have arrived at the "office" stage, the "farm" and "factory" stages have not diminished in importance. The three stages can be viewed as the tripod legs that hold up the optical instrument with which we search for more and greater opportunities to provide persons in special groups.

The primary focus of this article is not to discuss the issues of policy making in vocational education, but rather to discuss access to quality vocational education programs by special populations in our society, i.e., Blacks, Hispanics, Native Americans, Asian Americans and all individuals who can be classified as disadvantaged and handicapped, as defined under Title II of the Educational Amendments, 1976. Two other groups include unemployed or underemployed youth whose status as a "special group" is one of the foremost challenges to the Carter Administration, in general, and vocational education and manpower, in particular. Finally, women as a "special group" with unique needs that vocational education can meet also has been duly noted in all vocational education legislation.

In the Declaration of Purpose of the Education Amendments of 1976, concerning vocational education we find the following statement (sec. 101): -- to develop and carry out such programs of vocational education within each state so as to overcome sex discrimination and sex sterotyping in vocation education programs (including programs of homemaking), and thereby furnish equal educational opportunities in vocational education to persons of both sexes. (3)

Special Populations to be Served

Today, about forty-five percent of all wives are working or looking for work in this country. In addition, the number of female headed households has increased, and many of these family heads are in the labor force. In the United States today, the female commitment to the world of work is the strongest it has been for many decades. Many of these women need training -- especially those who have been raising a family, or those who have been in unrewarding careers because of job stereotyping and are now turning to new occupations. Career aspirations of women are

changing fast. Many more women now realize they can pursue careers in other than routine office work and retail sales. Vocational education can help to prepare them for more satisfying and financially rewarding positions. (6)

The employment of women in the traditionally feminine occupations -- many of which are low paying jobs -- becomes even more obvious when we examine the sex breakdown of more detailed occupational classifications. Almost all secretaries are women, 86 percent of all file clerks are women, and women account for 85 percent of all elementary teachers, 97 percent of all nurses and 81 percent of all librarians.

The situation of administrators impacting on quality vocational programs is even more critical for blacks, Hispanics, Native Americans, and other racial and/or ethnic minorities. These groups continue to lag behind the white majority in terms of formal education and skills. And, like women, this is reflected in their large concentrations in low paying, dead-end jobs. (4;5)

The black population is growing faster than the white, and this is expected to continue into the future. This means that -- proportionately -- more of the young people reaching working age in the next decade will be black.

Although the Spanish speaking population is smaller than the black American population, larger numbers along with Native and Asian Americans will be entering the work force in this country in the coming years, thus the demands on vocational education programs tailored to meet the needs of these individuals will undoubtedly increase. It is clear, then, that the future will bring even greater demands on vocational education programs in meeting the needs of students from special populations.

This writer will not elaborate on the special deficiencies of the target groups herein discussed or those factors which make their circumstances unique to vocational education. However, educational administrators must come to realize that none of these groups are homogeneous except in terms of their poverty, under - or unemployment. It should not be assumed, for example, that minority groups are monolithic. All too often this has been a repeated mistake in the past, and to some extent today, especially when designing vocational programs. What works

in the design of vocational programs for some won't necessarily for all. Thusly, in developing vocational programs it is important to make the appropriate diagnosis.

Again, this writer has great concern about the accessibility of special groups to the educational system. We must quickly realize that our traditional concerns over access don't mean much if the quality of the overall system to which that access is sought declines to an unacceptable level; this is especially true for vocational education. PL 94-482 (Vocational Education Amendments of 1976) passage would suggest that Congress shares this perception. This accessibility, though no great cause for celebration, would never have come about in the absence of a set of aggressive and strong federal policies.

It seems to have been true ever since 1954 that some of the most critical basic decisions in education policy are made not by the President, or the Congress, but by the courts. The Bakke case which still is on everyone's mind is a case in point.

None of the issues that the Bakke case raised were simple ones. My belief and those of numerous others is that the Bakke case will have a major impact on programs in education, government and industry designed to help special groups or minorities seeking jobs or other opportunities to make up for past racial discrimination. Without a doubt, the Bakke decision or the opportunity for special populations through affirmative action is just as relevant for vocational education as is the case for other arenas of education.

As the individuals who will face the impact of Bakke on the "firing line level," it is important for educational/vocational administrators to understand that affirmative action is not, as some misguided commentators argue, a code phrase for reverse discrimination, because the society is not playing a zero-sum game. Opening opportunities to minorities and other special groups need not mean closing them to others, and should not mean that in any acceptable and effective plan. It should mean expanding the range of opportunities to those thus far denied, and providing an educational program sensitive to the needs of each person in that situation.

At this point, one might ask, "what does all of this have to do with being a local administrator in schools with vocational education programs?

What does the fact that these target groups are identified in federal legislation have to do with the local educational administrator?"

Organization and Advocacy

As earlier pointed out, the inclusion of special groups in quality vocational education programs mandates program development and program revision or modification. Further, these groups can and are demonstrating that they can be politically potent. Or, to put it another way, these targeted groups potentially can impact on decisions which will impact on policy making in vocational education. This impact can be accomplished through organization and lobbying. The National Association For The Advancement of Black Americans in Vocational Education (NAABAVE)* is a good example of such organizing and lobbying. Such an organization is perceived as having the power to bring attention to some of the concerns idiosyncratic to ethnic minorities in vocational education since an individual person acting alone would be "powerless" or have "great difficulty" in being able to get the attention of policy makers and those who influence policy makers in the broad field of vocational education.

The NAABAVE is an advocacy organization. It has no choice, it must be. However despite its advocacy role, the organization will function in helping to solve the problems that deny large segments of special groups, especially black Americans, full partnership to the benefits and services in vocational education; and, further the organization will propose strategies that should lead to special groups having impact on decisions which will shape interpretation of vocational education policy, in turn, enhancing minority participation in vocational education. Finally, it is the hope that the organization will have positive influence for greater participation in all areas and levels of vocational and technical education.

Role of Educational Administrators

From the perspective of an educational administrator, NAABAVE's organizational efforts could be channeled or facilitated by an educational

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*The NAABAVE was founded on April 30, 1977 to be a unified advocacy voice for Black Americans and other ethnic minorities in vocational education.

administrator in meeting the mandates of Congress to serve special populations. For example, the organization potentially can help in the identification and recruitment of minority personnel for district level instructional and leadership positions and possibly assist administrators in better understanding the problems of recruitment, selection and placement of persons from special population in the overall field of vocational education.

The primary task of educational/vocational administrators in relation to "special groups" and "policy making" is to do the things that impress policy makers, parents and local citizenry groups, such as:

(1) Providing the administrative leadership in developing quality vocational education programs that meaningfully impact on the "felt needs" of those that such programs are desinged to serve (whether minorities, women, the disadvantaged, handicapped or whether the unemployed or underemployed youth);

(2) Adhering to the objectives of policy and legislation, especially PL 94-482 (vocational education legislation);

(3) Demonstrating or showing that tangible benefits are being made to populations of special interest;

(4) Communicating and making aware to those interested of the opportunities available in local public school programs of vovational education;

(5) Developing the capability to evaluate the effectiveness of instructional programs; and

(6) Involving those that the programs will affect in a meaningful way and will reflect concern for their input into planning program operations and outcomes.

Concluding Comments

What makes the denial of vocational education a problem of national significance is the sheer number of students from target groups who are by-passed or overlooked, particularly in large urban areas. These staggering numbers, still unserved, amount to a national embarrassment. For

example, in the September copy of the American Vocational Journal (1977) in an article entitiled: "Equal Access for the Disadvantaged: The Need to Break Some Barriers," a 1975 United States Office of Education study identifies an estimated national population of 5.2 million disadvantaged students at the secondary level whose vocational education needs were not being met. The same study identifies a similarly unserved population of 4.5 million out-of-school but potentially eligible disadvantaged students. Educational administrators from large urban areas or metropolitan centers would hardly view this as startling news. However, these statistics do send out a two-fold message to educational administrators: (1) what changes must occur to provide special groups with equal access to vocational education in the local schools and (2) to make the changes occur.

The real key for educational administrators is the development of quality programs for the target groups identified in the specific vocational legislation. No amount of rhetoric, making excuses or questioning and efficiency or practicality will do. Accessibility and quality represent the only way the job can get done.

/EL/

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Black Students In Higher Education

Benjamin R. McClain

The status of black people has improved when considered in terms of the actual gains achieved in the economic, social, and educational arenas. The average level of income for blacks is higher today than ever before. More blacks are experiencing academic success, and entering professions that were formally closed to them a little more than a decade ago. More black continue to fill skilled positions at a higher rate of occupancy than could have been predicted twenty years ago. Despite these absolute gains in economic, social, and educational terms, when compared with the gains of white Americans, the gap continues to widen. The income of black Americans has risen over the years, but their situation relative to white Americans has worsened.

The outlook appears just as bleak when comparisons are made in the educational arena. In a 1971 study conducted by the H.E.W. Office for Civil Rights, it was reported that 356,836 black students were enrolled at the undergraduate level in the nation's colleges and universities.(3) This figure represented 6.9 percent of a total student poulation of 5,187,407. Additionally, this report revealed an enrollment figure of 22,302 black students in graduate and professional schools. This figure represents 4.1 percent of a total graduate school enrollment of 543,150. (3)

Today, a large majority of blacks still can be counted among the "have-nots." Small gains in their overall economic, social, and educational positions have not altered, appreciably, their situation relative to whites. In the constant struggle for equality, the closer the promise of equality seems to come within reach, the more unreachable it becomes. In today's society, most blacks inhabit a world largely isolated from the affluence and mobility of mainstream America, primarily because of the color of their skins.

Even in the academic community, the issue of "race" has a dominant effect upon the relationships between black and white students in institutions of higher education (IHE). Moreover, these predominantly white IHEs seem to have difficulty understanding that the resolution of the problem of "color" is essential to the development of an institutional climate that allows maximum participation by all persons regardless of color. Despite numerous attempts by many noted persons to deny the importance of the difference in color, W. E. B. Dubois concluded in 1903 that:

> The problem of the twentieth century is the problem of the color-line, -- the relations of the darker to the lighter races of men in Asia and Africa, in America and the islands of the sea. (4:23)

The problem of blacks achieving professional respectability in predominantly white institutions of higher education is related, directly, to the degree to which whites can deal with the problem of the "color-line" based upon their contacts with balcks in real life situations. Increased matriculation of blacks in predominantly white institutions of higher education, coupled with the increased isolation of blacks within the larger white society; ambivalence surrounding the degree to which the law should be applied with regard to the human rights of black citizens; the need for blacks to become an integral part of the policy-making mechanism at all levels within the educational structure, have all contributed to the confusion and conflict.

Even though the enrollment data presented earlier appear to be quite depressive, they fail to reveal a more important consideration in determining the true status of blacks in predominantly white institutions of higher education. Perhaps the question under consideration

should be: How many of these black enrollees complete planned programs that lead to the earning of a college degree in predominantly white institutions of higher education? Elias Blake reported that in the period from 1960 to 1968, the gap between the percentage of blacks and the percentage of whites who had finished four years of college increased from 7.4 percent to 9.4 percent. (2:117)

Another way to assess the degree to which blacks access to institutions of higher education is to look at the enrollment distribution patterns based upon specific education levels, beginning with the first year of study beyond high school and continuing the assessment based upon the required number of years needed to complete professional and/or graduate programs. Of the 374,138 black students reported in the Office for Civil Rights Survey, 264,000, or 74 percent, were enrolled in their first two years of college.(5:vi-ix) There is no tangible evidence to support the notion that many of these black students were enrolled in part-time, remedial, and/or non-degree programs. However, these data clearly indicate that the increasing black enrollment is not yet reflected in the number of students who complete programs and receive degrees.

If the concept of equal educational opportunity is to become a reality for black Americans, there must be a conscious effort on the part of the white IHEs to provide equal access. Of equal importance, after equal access is achieved, blacks will have to receive fair treatment based upon objective performance criteria once they have been admitted to these institutions. Although reliable and complete data on this question is not readily available, the black experience has allowed the writer the opportunity to observe the behavior of whites in predominantly white institutions from a black perspective.

As a result of these observations, there is evidence to support the notion that white administrators and faculty members tend to assume an attitudinal posture that emits a feeling of tolerance for black students without exhibiting a concomitant amount of human understanding and compassion. Another problem most frequently confronting blacks in predominantly white institutions is that of the stereotyped image of black people that seems to dominate the thinking of many well-intentioned

white college administrators and faculty members. These whites tend to see all blacks as victims of poverty, and products of broken families, and academically unprepared to function on the college level. These notions seem to be based, primarily, upon the misconception that blacks received an inferior education in black elementary and secondary schools during the time the dual system was in effect. As a result of this mind set based upon inaccurate data, many whites still tend to operate from the assumption that black students lack the proper motivation and mental capacity to be successful in predominantly white institutions of higher education. Further, many whites are quick to label black students who have opted to attend black colleges as "militants," supporters of the separatists' ideology. At this point, it must be emphasized that these misconceptions are not only damaging to the well-being of black students, but they serve, also, as barriers in terms of providing sincere responses to the individual needs and abilities of black students in predominantly white institutions of higher education.

Blake presents what he refers to as three crisis points for blacks who aspire to succeed in predominantly white institutions of higher education. The first crisis point falls in the period from high school graduation through the first two years of college. It is usually during this period that blacks discover the truth about the inadequacy of their elementary and secondary educational experiences. For this reason, Blake advocates an open-enrollment system for public higher education at all levels. An open-enrollment system, as defined by Blake, is one that will allow admissions based upon criteria other than test scores, academic averages, and rank in high school graduation classes. This newly developed open-enrollment admission criteria should apply, also according to Blake, to graduate and professional schools. Further, he has suggested that successful college graduates should qualify, automatically, for post-baccalaureate study.

The second crisis point falls in that same period between high school graduation and the first two years of college. For it is during this time, too, that many black students drop out of school. Blake gives two reasons for this behavior: (1) the black student becomes aware that there is insufficient funds to cover expenses; and (2) the black student discoveres that the educational programs in which he is enrolled appear to be designed to push him out rather than hold him in. To address these problems, Blake proposes the granting of financial

assistance to the student that would relieve the pressure of having to work during the first two years of college. Also, Blake urges all predominantly white institutions of higher education to follow the black college model -- accepting young blacks as they are and doing what is necessary to give them the skills needed for academic success.

Blake's third crisis point for blacks resides at the graduate and professional level. The available data relative to this crisis clearly show that too few blacks are enrolled in graduate and professional programs. The lack of black enrollees in graduate and professional programs is reflected in the acute shortage of black dentists, black doctors, black lawyers, and blacks in other professions requiring graduate and/or professional study. Because of the apparent shortage of black doctorates, predominantly white college and universities claim that they are unable to locate qualified blacks to assume faculty positions at their respective institutions. The truth of the matter is that many predominantly white insitutions will not offer compensation commensurate with qualifications. To eliminate the shortage of black doctorates in the active employment pool, Blake recommends programs funded at the national level designed, specifically, to draw large numbers of blacks into graduate and professional programs. The expansion of the NDEA Fellowship Program is an example of the kinds of positive steps that can take place to focus on the recruitment of blacks in graduate and professional programs.

Pifer (6) documents the existence of at least 105 black colleges in these United States. There is a preponderance of evidence to support the fact that these institutions still produce a majority of black holders of baccalaureate degrees. Many of our great black leaders are products of these institutions primarily because there were no other alternatives available to them to receive any kind of higher education. Because black colleges provided the only educational opportunities for blacks when it was illegal for blacks to attend predominantly white institutions of higher education, their continued existence remains essential to the psychological and sociological well-being of the black community.

Bowles and DeCosta, in Between Two Worlds (1), build a very strong case for the continued existence of black institutions of higher education. First, the basic reason for the establishment of black institu-

tions still exist. Even though the legal constraints have been removed, it is still very difficult for blacks to enroll in predominantly white institutions of higher education. Bowles and DeCosta sum the situation in the following manner:

> As time goes on, and as white institutions learn to accommodate themselves to Negro students, the demand for courage for a Negro to enter a predominantly white institution will diminish. It is hard to foresee a time when it will dissappear. (1:233)

Second, black colleges still serve psychological and sociological functions that cannot be duplicated by predominantly white institutions of higher education. One of the most important functions provided by black colleges is that of deliberately designing a human support system to address the total needs of black students. Predominantly white institutions of higher education are not flexible enough, nor willing to accommodate the diversified needs of black students. On the other hand, black institutions are willing to accept black students where they are in terms of prior academic preparation and provide them with skills that quality them to pursue professional careers in both the black community and the larger society. Black institutions are willing, also, to give black students the opportunity to become successful in the pursuit of college studies. As a result, black students are graduated with the confidence, pride, and the academic skills needed to become outstanding contributors in numerous professional fields.

There is no doubt that the problems inherent in operating black institutions of higher education are irrevocable. The lack of financial support is still a major concern to administrators and supports of black institutions. Many needed program improvements have been postponed and/or minimized because of financial shortfalls. Many faculty members at black institutions continue to be overworked and underpaid. These institutions are still excluded from the mainstream of higher education. In spite of these difficulties, black institutions of higher education continue to provide the major source of educational opportunities for many blacks who aspire to matriculate beyond the high school level. At a time in our history when more students, especially black and other minority students, are seeking opportunities in higher education, the black institutions of higher education are far from being washed away.

As administrators and faculties go about the business of making a concerted effort to address those issues that tend to threaten the continued existence of black institutions of higher education, perhaps it would be wise to embrace those ideas contained in an address delivered in a 1945 speech by Benjamin E. Mays, then President of Morehouse College:

> It will not be sufficient ..., for any college, ..., to produce cleaver graduates, men fluent in speech and able to argue their way through: but rather honest men, men who can be trusted in public and private -- men who are sensitive to the wrongs, the sufferings, and the injustices of society and who are willing to accept responsibility for correcting the ills. (Radio speech) /EL/

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Socialization: Chicano Administrators In Higher Education

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De los Santos states that, "....one can say without too much fear of being contradicted that the experiences of higher education has been generally limited to the 1970's." (4:19) This situation is a result of many factors, one among those being the fact that few Chicanos have been in positions from which administrators are named, few Chicanos have had access to administrator preparation programs to assume leadership in junior and senior level institutions and few have held executive positions.

Other scholars have pointed to similar circumstances and conditions about the Mexican American population in other areas of the American social structure. Moquin and Van Doren (10) observed that the Mexican American people have been struggling to become an enfranchised citizenery in the United States since the 1848 Treaty of Guadalupe-Hildalgo by which the northwestern territories of Mexico (southwest United States) along with their people, were annexed into the United States. Extensive demographic and statistical research by Grebler, Moore and Guzman (8) bears out the fact that this particular ethnic group has been excluded from all institutions: educational, economic, social and political areas upon which the foundations of the American dream are supposed to be founded.

This particular study is directed at one of the social institutions, higher education, which the Mexican American is beginning to access as a professional administrator. Since the experiences of the Chicano in administration in higher education are quite recent, it would be helpful for further development to discover and describe how these experiences are being perceived by this ethnic group.

In this research the emphasis is on one specific experience, organizational socialization and its impact and effect on the Chicano mid-level administrator in Texas higher education institutions. Organizational socialization is viewed by Schein as, "the process of learning the ropes, the process of being taught what is important in any organization or some subunits thereof." (14:605)

The socialization process occurs at every stage of an individual's development, from birth until death.(3) In the realm of work this process occurs when an individual enters an organization, when he is promoted or moves from one department to another, when he returns to school for further training and even when he returns to the organization.(14) Also this process involves both formal activities such as inservice training or orientation by the organization and informal activities, dictated by peer groups which the individual undergoing the process may choose to associate with or which may seek him out. (2;3;5)

The importance of this process is emphasized by Schein when he states that, "the process is so ubiquitous and we go through it so often during our total career that it is all too easy to overlook it. Yet it is a process which can make or break a career, and which can make or break organizational systems of manpower planning. The speed and effectiveness of socialization determines employee loyalty, commitment, productivity and turnover. The basic stability and effectiveness of organizations, therefore, depends upon their ability to socialize new members." (14:605)

According to Moore an occupation is a social construct and its performance a social role or set of roles. He views socialization within the world of work in the same sense that Schein does and remarks that, "by socialization we mean both cognitive learning and at least minimal internalization of appropriate norms." (12:688)

In studying organizational behavior, Schein feels that, "the socialization concept is most useful because it focuses clearly on the interaction between a stable social system and the new members who enter it." (14:606) The broad concern of this study is to discover and describe the attitudes and behaviors which the Chicano mid-level administrative group has developed about administration in higher education as a result of its socialization experiences.

Statement of the Problem

As more Mexican Americans have assumed administrative positions in educational organizations, there has been a growing concern about their perceptions on certain problems and issues which they have encountered in dealing with institutional demands. (1;4;6;11) Some of these perceptions and problems are:

1. The means by which Chicanos have assumed administrative positions such as through long term apprenticeships which led to the manipulation of the participant (the Chicano) by the sponsor. (11)

2. The internalization of institutional goals as defined by the sponsor and not by the individual perspectives of the Chicano. (11)

3. Isolation created when the Chicano administrator finds himself as the only one of his kind in an educational institution. (1;4;6)

4. The fact there are few peer or role models who can assist the newly arrived Chicano administrator during his initial orientation and transition period in the organization and thus his socialization is incomplete. (4)

5. Situations where the Chicano administrator is made the unofficial "Chicano affairs or problem liaison." (4)

In a survey conducted by De los Santos of Chicano administrators in higher education, he quotes one of the respondents as stating:

"A Chicano in administration must understand that he will have additional responsibilities other than the normal. He must understand that he is expected to be a Chicano expert ready to provide answers and solutions to all the problems and put out the fires as the need arises. He must also understand that he will never please everyone and will be looked upon with suspicion by not only his Anglo counterparts, but also by his Chicano constituency. This, in my opinion, creates undue pressures on the Chicano administrator who is expected to be a regular administrator" (sic) (4:21)

The problem to be studied here is to identify, describe and analyze specific attitudes and behaviors of Chicano mid-level administrators as they react and relate to the organizational socialization process in institutions of higher education in Texas.

Chicanos are by no means a homogeneous group but their socialization has been an experience which falls within a sub-cultural environment different from that of the dominant Anglo society. Young, in addressing the socialization of minorities, states that, "....a minority group member has to cross many cultural and ethnic hurdles before he is confronted by the socialization process of the institution into which he is attempting to integrate." (20:1131) Young provides four major sources of socialization experiences and problems for minorities and the socializing agent. These are:

1. their distribution within the country,

2. their position in the American social system,

3. their cultural distinctiveness, and

4. the man-made environment in which they live.

In observing each of Young's four sources of socialization problems for minorities and the socializing agent, with a perspective on the Chicano, some common elements are brought forth which have influenced their socialization experience:

1. Young states that, "....minorities are far from evenly distributed by geographic region, urban and rural and location of residence, within local population aggregations." (20:1110)

   Current research (1;8) indicates that of the estimated 6,000,-000 Mexican Americans, 80% were concentrated and evenly distributed in 5 Southwestern states and in 17 major urban areas. These figures would tend to weaken Young's contention about the geographic distribution of the Mexican American population which has had a definite influence on its socialization experience.

2. With regards to "cultural distinctiveness" one can easily view the current manifestations of ethnic pride, the birth of Chicanismo, el Movimiento, the struggle for equal rights at all levels of society and the historical roots from pre-Columbian history to find the foundations which have established the Chicano as members of a distinctive sub-culture apart from the dominant Anglo society. (7;10;15)

3. Young also asserts that, "the ascription of inferior status and roles in the social structure is a third sources of minorities' socialization problems. Minorities identified by racial or cultural divergencies are a variety of social class. That is, they are groups of persons to whom a particular social status in the hierarchical social structure, has been assigned." (30:1115) Moquin and Van Doren emphasize the fact by noting that the Chicano is the only minority, apart from the Native-American, ever acquired by conquest. As a result of this conquest, these authors claim that the Chicano has been subjected to economic, social and political discrimination which they are still struggling to overcome.

4. The final dimension which Young provides as a problem of socialization for minorities, is that which originates in the man-made environments. The environment, for minorities, is characterized as restrictive in that the tendency is to deny minority individuals equal access to material goods and to limit severely both their cultural experiences and association range. This problem is characterized by restrictions in

housing, economic mobility, health resources, education, cultural isolation and segregation. Grebler, Moore and Gomez provide an in-depth study which shows that the Mexican American population is deficient in each of these areas with reference to the accepted standards as prescribed by the federal government. This situation creates another factor which has influenced the socialization experience of this ethnic group.

In reviewing the four problems of socialization for minorities and the socializing agent, as cited by Young, it can be seen that while the Chicano population is not homogeneous, there are many elements which make its socialization into existing institutions different from that of other minority groups in general. The current literature on the question of Chicanos attempting to integrate and gain access to higher education administration is very limited. When probing into the specialized field of socialization, one faces the same problem of insufficiency of literature or information about this process as it relates to Chicanos in administrative capacities. The most recent effort in this area is Valverde's 1974 study of succession socialization, aimed at uncovering how women and minorities are socialized into large urban, public school administrative positions.

In research concerning higher education institutions, the emphasis of most studies related to Mexican Americans is of a statistical nature. (1;6;13;18) Very few investigations have gone indepth into the status of Chicanos in higher education.

The recency of the Chicano experience in higher education is one major factor for this situation. The earlier studies, which were more demographic and statistical in nature, are necessary in order to provide an information and data base about the number and location of Chicanos in higher education institutions. During the seventies decade institutions of higher education, both at the junior and senior levels, are not only enrolling more Chicanos as students but are hiring more Chicanos in key administrative positions. (6;11;13)

Arce in his research on the status of Chicanos in American colleges and universities found that as of 1973 there were 142,000 Chicano students enrolled in these institutions. This total breaks down into 84,000 males and 58,000 females. It is difficult to cite figures which

are reflective of pre-1970 enrollments since surveys prior to 1970 did not include appropriate racial and ethnic response categories.

In the area of administration, Esquibel (6) identified only 12 Chicano presidents in higher education in the Southwest. Esquibel also presented data on all levels of the administrative structure in post secondary education institutions but his data are incomplete in the sense that he only counted administrators who were on hard money salaried positions. This present study will go beyond Esquibel's criteria and will identify additional administrators in Texas, at the mid-management level, who are in positions funded through soft money and who are administering federal and state projects which make a vital contribution to their institutions and constituencies.

The demographic survey which was conducted to secure a pool for this study was supplemented with data from ongoing research by Valverde and Ramirez (18) and from their 1977 statistical survey of Chicano professionals in Texas higher education. The following figures are reflective of the number of Chicanos who are at the mid-management level of administration in Texas higher education:

Distribution Of Chicano Professionals In Texas Higher Education by Institutional Level

Distribution				Type of Institution
226	78	8	61	Community Jr College
219	95	17	87	Senior Level
Faculty	Mid-Level Administration	Mid-Level Administrators: Externally Funded	Mid-Level Administrators: Internally Funded	618 Total

As Chicanos continue to assume positions of administrative leadership in higher education, even though their number is still small, the need to know more about their experiences also increases. Nieto and Valverde claim that Chicanos, in administrative positions, are moving from a "state of survival to a state of leadership." (11) This transition has been marked by the payment of the "price of membership" which Schein views as a requirement of becoming socialized by any organization.

According to Nieto and Valverde the experience of the Chicanos in educational administration has also been characterized by their attempts to satisfy their idiographic dispositions (personal requirements) and the nomothetic expectations (institutional requirements) of the educational organizations with which they interact. In order to better understand these experiences of the Chicano administrator, it is appropriate to reiterate the need to utilize the socialization concept, as previously attributed to Schein, because of its usefulness in understanding the interaction between a stable social system and the new members who enter it.

The literature cited up to now indicates that the experiences of the Chicano in higher education is quite recent. This study addresses one of the processes, organizational socialization, which confronts the Chicano administrator as he attempts to gain access to and integrate within institutions of higher education as a professional manager. In order to better identify, describe and analyze the phenomena of organizational socialization and its effects on the Chicano mid-level administrator, this study proposed to address the following questions:

1. What kinds or types of attitudes and response mechanisms do Chicano mid-level administrators in Texas institutions of higher education develop to cope with organizational socialization processes which may be considered restrictive or enhancing to their institutional role?

2. Have Chicano mid-level administrators in Texas institutions of higher education developed a peer ethnic group or non-ethnic group as a technique for countering or coinciding with the socialization processes of the institution?

3. Do Chicano mid-level administrators in Texas institutions of higher education perceive themselves as possessing the usual array of administrative and academic competencies and skills necessary for advancement upward, through the acquisition of new roles, within the institution?

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify, describe and analyze attitudes and behaviors of Mexican American mid-management administrators in Texas higher education institutions as they encounter the socialization processes in these organizations. The empahsis will be on finding the effects of organizational socialization on the Chicano mid-management administrator.

A second purpose is to extend current theory and empirical knowledge about the relationship between the socialization process in institutions of higher education and the behavior, attitudes, and response strategies of ethnic minorities encountering such a process.

A third purpose is to add to the increasing demographic information pool about the Chicano administrator in higher education. As has been noted by Esquibel, there is inadequate data about this particular administrative group which makes prior research suspect.

A final purpose is to develop hypotheses and identify problem areas which may lead to additional research which is necessary for a better understanding about the nature of the Chicano administrator's experience in higher education. Esquibel found it interesting that the two Neman Reports (1970 & 1973), which professed to provide extensive data on the status quo of American higher education, did not even mention the Spanish surnamed in American higher education.

Significance of the Study

Brim and Wheeler (3) have emphasized the fact that most socialization research is directed at the study of children and adolescent development. Also Valverde has commented on the relatively few investigations examining the process of adult socialization in social organizations.

There is little research on Chicanos in higher education and even less which attempt to discover and describe the current status of this nouveau administrative group. Much of the available information on Chicanos, whether students or professionals, is statistical and does little to provide substantive information about the experiences of this group as it integrates and accesses institutions of higher education.

Esquibel states that in research concerning higher education institutions the emphasis is, "....with the position of college president, few with positions of dean, still fewer with the position of department chairman and almost none with the vice-president." (6:97) Furthermore, Esquibel claims that there are few studies scrutinizing Chicanos in higher education and none are concerned with the question of the occupation and career mobility of Chicano educators at this level.

The questions which this study proposes to address are significant in that through them descriptive and explanatory models of organizational socialization in relation to higher education institutions will be developed. These models should provide a better understanding of how organizational socialization processes affect the behavior and attitudes of Chicano administrators as they attempt to cope with the nomothetic demands of the institution while trying to meet their own idiographic needs.

Also hypotheses resulting from this investigation can form the basis for new strategies for preparing Chicanos to administer in higher education organizations. More,the problem areas and assets of organizational socialization will be identified and these can be utilized to increase cross-cultural cooperation and institutional effectiveness in colleges as they strive to serve an increasingly diverse student and professional staff.

Basic Assumptions Underlying the Study

Certain assumptions must be made in this study and these are:

1. The socialization experience of Chicanos in administrative organizations is different than that of the Anglo majority population and other minority groups.

2. The parent culture of an individual will influence him even in the professional setting.

3. The expectant role behavior which a Chicano administrator has for himself and for others will be affected by his parent culture.

4. An individual's organizational behavior is conditioned by his values.

5. Qualitative research methodology is the most effective way for identifying and describing the behavior and attitudes of Chicano administrators who are exposed to socialization in higher education institutions.

6. Not all individuals are aware of how they are socialized and how they socialize others in an organization.

7. Organizational socialization is not necessarily a negative process but one which has enhancing and restrictive properties.

Limitations

As previously stated the purpose of this study is to discover rather than to verify hypotheses concerning organizational socialization and its effects on Chicano administrators in higher education. All of the data for this study will be of a descriptive nature.

The scope of this study will be on a sample of 10 Chicano administrators in Texas higher education institutions. This sample population is limited in that a specific type of administrator, the one at the mid-management level, will be used as a subject. The information obtained is only as good as the sample group represents the general population from which it is drawn. Also limitations result from the fact that this study does not propose to question immediate supervisors or subordinates concerning their perspectives on organizational socialization, thus there is no comparison group being utilized.

As a perceptual study, this research attempts to evaluate the role occupant's perceptions on socialization situations within the organization he is associated with. This situation adds another limitation, since while it may be clear to the observer that a social situation may be charged with socialization activity, the role occupant may or may not perceive this. This condition places a burden on the researcher since much of what he reports is dependent on his skill in ethnography and his objectivity. Since it has been assumed that perceptions and values condition social behavior, further empirical investigations of actual socialization situations should be left to follow-up studies as a result of the hypotheses generated by this study. /EL/

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Affirmative Action Officers:

A Preliminary Study

Charlotte Robinson

A study of Affirmative Action in organizations was conducted by a group of nine graduate students enrolled in an Affirmative Action seminar at Georgia State University. The nine students of administration and supervision interviewed persons with responsibility for some facet of affirmative action in an organization. This report briefly describes their findings and identifies areas appropriate for further study.

Methodology

The interview format was designed to provide information in three areas: (1) selection and preparation of Affirmative Action officers, (2) their responsibilities within the organization, and (3) their perceptions of the future of Affirmative Action within their organizations. The preliminary findings follow.

The process of locating persons who would agree to be interviewed was reported by the students as a learning experience in itself. In some organization, the prospective interviewer could not find anyone who knew who the Affirmative Action officer was. In other instances, Affirmative Action officers refused to be interviewed, although care was taken in the development of the interview format to exclude questions which might reveal the identity of the interviewer or the organization.

Selection and Training

Length of service in the area of Affirmative Action ranged from six months to six years. When asked why they were selected for this responsibility, five of the nine indicated that prior experience was the major factor, but did not indicate the type of prior experience which qualified them. Two interviewees reported that their interest in Affirmative Action had been a primary factor in their selection. Of the remaining two, one had previously worked with the organization in a consulting capacity, and the other was selected by peers.

Six of the nine interviewees had received some type of training for their Affirmative Action responsibilities and indicated that their training had been helpful. Length of training programs ranged from three days to eleven weeks. One interviewee indicated that training had included awareness training and instruction in group behavior.

When asked if there were training needs of Affirmative Action officers which were currently not being met, seven of the nine indicated yes. Two interviewees felt that training was needed in the area of management personnel; one expressed a need for more interaction among Affirmative Action officers. Interest was also expressed in learning about Affirmative Action programs within other organizations and agencies.

Roles and Responsibilities

Six of the nine interviewees indicated that they had other job responsibilities in addition to Affirmative Action duties. For most of them, other responsibilities meant personnel-related activities.

When asked to describe their Affirmative Action responsibilities, most interviewees discussed compliance-related activities such as monitoring the Affirmatiave Action plan, reviewing policies and practices, and processing grievances. Activities reported by this group of Affirmative Action officers were almost exclusively reactive rather than proactive. When asked which responsibilities were most managable, the majority of respondents described some form of reporting. In five of the nine interviews, the most challenging responsibility reported involved working with management. Acceptance and support from management appeared to be limited.

Future of Affirmative Action

When asked what they hoped to accomplish in the next five years in Affirmative Action, most respondents focused upon changes in attitudes of top management. Also noted were the need for full-time Affirmative Action officers and full implementation of Affirmative Action plans.

Interviewees were asked if they wished to continue to be responsible for Affirmative Action in the next five years. Six of the nine indicated that they would, one indicated a desire that the job not be needed in five years, another felt that only the chief executive should have this responsibility, and one respondent said no, because the job was frustrating and depressing.

Conclusions

One theme which seemed to run through the interviews was the need for more top management involvement in Affirmative Action. Other possible themes require more information for validation. For example, the Affirmative Action officer's job often appears to be an add-on. To determine the add-on hypothesis, information is needed on the organization chart, budget, and staff. Also there appears to be a problem of isolation; more in-depth study should be pursued in this area.

One large missing element in this description is effectiveness. No information on program effectiveness was requested. It would certainly seem that there are some programs which are more effective for promoting equity than are others. If this is true, effective practices need to be identified and disseminated. /EL/

Book Review

Not Beyond Man's Reach

Reviewer

Susan B. Phibbs

Farrell, Warren. The Liberated Man. New York: Bantam Books, 1975.

When the traditional roles of men and women are questioned in the United States, the framework typically used is that of the women's liberation movement. Often and cursorily examined in these discussions are the problems associated with the ways in which men's roles are confined. Additionally, women's liberation is seen as a problem of and for women even though the masculine role in society prevents women from seeking a range of alternatives which could otherwise be open to them. And for those women who do achieve in areas traditionally reserved for men, the game must be played by adopting men's rules or value systems. With the primary goal of critically looking at values and freeing men in their relationships with others, Warren Farrell proposes alternatives which are idealistic but not out of reason. As a secondary goal, the commentary speaks to that part of the women's movement which women cannot achieve alone, that part of the movement which calls for men to change as well as women.

Part one of the book discusses the limits of masculinity in contemporary American society. Masculine values, their source, and how they are manifested in the public arenas of business, politics, news media, military, and athletics are highlighted, as well as in the more private arenas of child rearing and sexual relationships. Additionally, the section provides an excellent review of the process of male socialization and value development as it limits women in society. Human liberation, the ultimate answer to this debilitating set of circumstances,

is set aside until, as Farrell proposes, male liberation has been explored and understood as fully as women have explored their own liberation efforts.

Part two discusses some preliminary steps in changing masculine behavior. The author first explores some factual and self-fulfilling myths about men and women and then proposes 21 ways in which men can benefit from women's liberation. While these are excellent suggestions, the most revealing chapter concerns itself with some of the subtle barriers that occur in changing behavior.

The third part of the book describes the problems, techniques, and topics used in consciousness-raising groups, the means through which Farrell suggests changes can best take place. He concludes by suggesting that joint consciousness-raising groups with men and women contain the seeds of the ultimate goald of human liberation.

Throughout the book the author is able to demonstrate an acceptable understanding of the women's liberation movement and the need for freeing men in their relationships with women. The work is readable, complements documented analysis with concrete alternatives, and focuses on the need for men to confront their own sexist relationships. It demonstrates very clearly that the women's liberation movement by itself is insufficient because it leads to a misconception of the problems in sex roles as being primarily a problem of women. However, the book treats insufficiently the process by which men reach a level of confidence and security which is adequate to support the alternatives which are proposed. Without this crucial prerequisite, the author concedes that little change can occur.

Begun in a time when few men saw themselves in a position to benefit from the women's movement, it is interesting to note that the masculine role in society has not changed from that which Farrell describes, even though the need for such change is daily becoming more clear. The encouraging concept which the author proposes is that the move to a new masculine freedom is not beyond man's reach. /EL/

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